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ABSTRACT

This document is a chapter in "The Principles and Practice of Educational Management," which aims to provide a systematic and analytical introduction to the study of educational management. The structure of the book reflects the main substantive areas of educational leadership and management, and most of the major themes are covered in the volume's 19 chapters, of which this is one. This chapter considers the nature and place of vision and mission within strategic planning. It defines strategic management and strategic planning, explores the process of strategic planning, and relates strategic planning to educational-management models. Vision and mission can be vague in conception, but they are important components of educational management. The responsibility of a shared vision is often ascribed to the principal, and while shared vision is expected, its effects may range widely: from a force that shapes teaching and learning to a political means of defusing criticism and disguising truths. Strategic management, which is often coupled with vision sharing, can be defined as the overarching process that includes strategic thinking, strategic planning, implementation, and review. Strategic planning, in particular, is considered a vital part of educational management but it can operate in various ways, from the political to the cultural. Although vision and strategic planning are commonly linked, the question remains as to how the values that underlie vision can be used to shape a strategic plan. Attempts to link vision and strategy happen both at the inception of a plan and on an ongoing basis, and results can be tenuous. To attract general support, the vision and its values need to be general; the more specific they become, the more likely they are to contradict stakeholders' own values. (Contains 40 references.) (RJM)

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Vision and Strategic Planning.

Jacky Lumby

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Vision and Strategic Planning

Jacky Lumby

The compulsion to plan

Planning is a requirement in schools and colleges in many countries, including Hong Kong, Singapore and Australia (Quong et al., 1998). In the UK, even though not enshrined in legislation, the inclusion of development planning in Ofsted inspection and the linking of funding with planning in the learning and skills sector effectively compels schools and colleges to plan. Even where there is no formal requirement to produce a plan, current orthodoxy demands educational organisations demonstrate their managerial competence by production of long-term plans based on vision and/or mission. This partly follows from the greater degree of autonomy in educational institutions in many parts of the world which has led to a perceived need for each organisation to take responsibility for planning its future.

Literature related to vision and strategic planning in education spans a range of analysis offering contradictory views. The identified purposes of vision and strategic planning are diverse. Models of the process span a range from positing a rational, sequential process (FEDA, 1995) to theories which portray the activity as a much more diffuse cultural and intuitive evolution (Quong et al., 1998). It is suggested that strategic planning is critical for managing education effectively (West-Burnham, 1994), or alternatively, that it may be ineffective and therefore irrelevant or even a distraction from the essential business of improving teaching and learning (Bell, 1998). Planning can embody freedom, allowing institutions to shape the possibilities provided by greater autonomy. It can also be used as a vehicle for external control, where apparently greater 'autonomy' is actually constrained by the need for plans to be agreed or approved. Concepts of vision and strategic planning are apparently both embraced warmly by staff and greeted cynically and resisted. This chapter will address the plethora of diverse views in the literature to:

- consider the nature and place of vision and mission within strategic planning
- define strategic management and strategic planning

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- explore the process of strategic planning
- relate approaches to strategic planning to educational management theoretical models.

Finally it will conclude on the question which matters most of all, whether strategic planning offers benefits to staff and to learners or not.

Vision and mission

The chapter opened by emphasising that strategic planning has become, in effect, compulsory. The inclusion of vision building is also, as Macbeath (1998: 4) states, '*de rigeur*'. The reason given for this is often that achieving a corporate vision is a practical necessity, in that if the changes mooted by planning are in contradiction to the values of those implementing them, they will not happen (Wideen, 1994).

Agreement on values is therefore an essential first step if planning is not to be merely a rhetorical activity. There are dissenting voices. Holder (1996) argues from a case study that the school in question got on quite effectively without an agreed vision. However, the dominant opinion appears to be that of Quong et al. (1998: 107) 'Planning for school improvement, we argue, must be based on the premise that schools have different values and that these values must be mapped before strategic intent can be determined.' This also appears to be an expectation from both internal and external customers. In a study of schools in England, Scotland and Denmark, teachers, parents and board members expected the principal to achieve vision, though the priority given to this varied amongst the groups and amongst the countries (Moos et al., 1998). The same expectation was strongly felt amongst parents and teachers in Australia (Dempster and Logan, 1998). The inclusion of teachers in the latter survey revealed that there is a professional expectation of vision building. Quong et al. (1998: 32) assert that in their work with principals based in Australasia, when asked what will ensure a successful future for their school, principals say 'you must have a vision'.

The words vision, mission and purposing are all used largely synonymously, even when purporting to differentiate amongst concepts. All three are seen to centre on values which are 'by their very nature, abstract, vague and subjective' (Kenny, 1994: 17), or 'general abstract ideas that guide thinking' (Warnet, 1994: 221). Thus vagueness and generality go with the territory. Vision itself is defined as:

> some futuristic ideal, (to) some notion of how things could/should be, and reflect an aspired state of being for either an individual, an organisation, or society at large. (Kenny, 1994: 17)
>
> goal-consensus. (Staessens and Vandenberghe, 1994: 192)

> shared understanding, shared decision-making, shared evaluation. (Staessens and Vandenberghe, 1994: 199)

However, mission is very similarly defined, in the case of Jennings and Wattam (1998: 261) as 'the purpose and values of the organisation'. Perhaps the only distinction that can be suggested is that definitions of mission include the word 'direction' more often and therefore imply a greater degree of concreteness than vision. However, the distinction is not clear or consistent. The third term of purposing also appears to be in the same ball park. It is a 'continuous stream of actions by an organisation's formal leadership which has the effect of inducing clarity, consensus and commitment regarding the organisation's basic purposes' (Vaill, 1984, quoted in Warnet, 1994: 233).

Where the ongoing nature of the creation of vision or purpose is stressed, it is difficult to distinguish how the process may differ from that of cultural management, which also is concerned with managing or influencing 'a pattern of shared basic assumptions . . . (seen as) the correct way to perceive, think and feel' (Schein, 1997:12). Whether the process is termed vision-building, purposing or managing culture, the common element is the attempt to achieve some degree of shared principles or guiding assumptions. Senge categorises the degree as ranging from commitment, which is in his view rare, to apathy (Table 6.1).

The most that the majority of principals could hope for is enrolment. Many will have to settle for compliance. Such a typology is helpful in that many writers challenge the realism of achieving commitment, that is a vision shared and agreed by all. The recognition that staff may engage in different ways provides a more tenable description of the process.

Table 6.1 *Possible Attitudes toward a vision*

Commitment: Wants it. Will make it happen. Creates whatever 'laws' (structures) are needed.
Enrolment: Wants it. Will do whatever can be done within the 'spirit of the law'.
Genuine compliance: Sees the benefits of the vision. Does everything expected and more. Follows the 'letter of the law'. 'Good soldiers'.
Formal compliance: On the whole, sees the benefits of the vision. Does what's expected and no more. 'Pretty good soldier'.
Grudging compliance: Does not see the benefits of the vision. But, also, does not want to lose job. Does enough of what's expected because he has to, but also lets it be known that he is not really on board.
Noncompliance: Does not see the benefits of vision and will not do what's expected. 'I won't do it, you can't make me'.
Apathy: Neither for nor against vision. No interest. No energy. 'Is it five o'clock yet?'

Source: Senge (1990: 219–20)

How is shared vision achieved?

The responsibility for building a shared vision is often ascribed to the principal. If vision may be not only a dream of what the institution could be like in the future, but also related to a wider aspiration of what the community or society could be, then the creation of a shared vision may relate to the leader's task to bequeath a legacy. De Pree (1999) distinguishes strategic planning and the concept of a legacy. The latter is longer term, passing on the values underpinning relationships and a passionate care for the tasks of the organisation, and belongs uniquely to the most senior member of the organisation. However, even though the principal may lead in this process, it is clear that all staff share in the re-creation and adjustment of vision on a daily basis, by actions which embody or symbolise the shared values or assumptions. Staessens and Vandenberghe (1994) provide an illustration of this. They describe the staff of a Belgian primary school who, when asked about their school's vision, not only all identified the same three key ideas, but used the same sort of language to describe them and could be specific about the ways in which they translated the key ideas into actions within teaching and learning. Vision in this case was created through activity, not through awaydays or strategic planning meetings or consultation on documents. The activity was underpinned by daily informal discussion of what the teachers were doing and why. A principal of a further education college in England isolated the same component of the necessity to talk. Working in an underfunded and undervalued sector of education: 'It is actually about galvanising yourself into some conscious thought about what you are there to do. *You have to say things to yourself and to each other* if you are to be able to act purposefully', (Lumby, 1999: 75, original emphasis).

Rather than a formal process, or conceivably as well as formal processes, vision can be created by an ongoing informal dialogue which nudges understanding towards greater congruence. In Senge's terms, this daily discussion may move staff from compliance to enrolment and even, sometimes, commitment. In this way rather than in Beare et al.'s (1989: 149) assertion that 'shared vision must pervade day-to-day activities', shared vision grows out of day-to-day activities and is constantly renegotiated through them.

In many educational organisations, the process does not accord at all with what has been described above. The vision or mission has been more formally derived through being written by senior management and, sometimes, sent out for consultation. The process is ineffective in influencing people. In the world of business and industry, Collins and Porras (1991: 30) aver 'most corporate statements we've encountered – be they called mission, vision, purpose, philosophy, credo or the company way – are of little value. They don't have the intended effect'. Similarly in education Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993) criticise the mission statement characterising it as not memorable, unlikely to produce alignment, ambiguous and unlikely to inform daily action. In a review of

the effectiveness of mission statements in schools in Singapore, Stott and Walker (1992) found they were vague, self-righteous and undifferentiated. Staff were often unclear about what was in them. The statements had little impact on the school's activities. Finally, they were evidently dishonest in proposing various platitudes as the aim of the institution when in fact the schools aimed above all to achieve the best possible examination results. The vagueness had an advantage in that it made it more difficult for any criticism to be levelled at the institution. If objectives are unclear, then it is difficult to conclude how far they have been achieved or not. Similarly, the espousal of acceptable if vague moral and social objectives served the useful purpose of shielding the professionally less acceptable aim to focus on academic results above all else. Clearly, the purpose of these mission statements was different to the orthodox model of aligning values and direction. The purpose was much more political.

Holder (1996: 9) asks whether shared vision is 'workable strategy' or 'an appealing myth'? The evidence presented in this section suggests that it spans the range. Shared vision-building is certainly expected. Its effects may be various, from a genuine force shaping teaching and learning to a political means of defusing criticism and disguising unpalatable truths. As a component of strategic planning vision building is therefore potentially a multi-purpose tool.

Strategic management and planning

Strategic management can be defined as the overarching process which includes strategic thinking, strategic planning, implementation and review. This chapter focuses on the relationship between vision/mission and planning. There are many definitions of strategy and strategic planning, containing a number of elements, including the purpose of planning, for example to chose a direction, to achieve commitment from staff and other stakeholders, and the process, selecting the means to move in the desired direction, perhaps involving staff, and then translating the choices into specific goals and actions to achieve them. All agree that the activity is one where managers lift their heads from day-to-day operational concerns and look forward in a longer timescale of anything from three to ten years to in some sense plan to secure a successful future for the institution. Thus some definitions emphasise simplicity: 'select a destination, figure out the best way of getting there, then explain how you know you have arrived' (Quong et al., 1998: 10). Others, in their incorporation of numerous elements, place an emphasis on the all-embracing nature of the process which touches every aspect of managing the organisation:

> a continuous process in administration which links goal-setting, policy-making, short-term and long-term planning, budgeting and evaluation in a manner which spans all levels of the organisation, secures appropriate involvement of people according to their responsibility for implementing plans as well as of people with an interest or stake in the outcomes of those plans, and provides a frame-

> work for the annual planning, budgeting and evaluation cycle. (Caldwell and Spinks, quoted in Beare et al., 1992: 143)

Some definitions indicate an inward looking orientation, with the values of staff as the foundation for planning (West-Burnham, 1994). For others the process is essentially outward looking, positioning the school or college or university in relation to the external environment, particularly competitors (Jennings and Wattam, 1998). A synthesis of the range of definitions suggests that strategic planning may involve establishing values, analysing information on the external and internal environment, synthesising all of this to make choices about what is important to the organisation's future, translating such choices into the goals and the means to achieve them and finally linking the implications to every aspect of operational management, such as budgeting, staff development, etc. Most of the hortatory or prescriptive literature emanating from government, government agencies or donor bodies tends to be based on this holistic and essentially rational model.

However, there is also a debate about whether educational institutions are in any position to undertake strategic planning so defined. Public sector organisations are clearly in a different position from businesses, from which concepts and practice derive. Unlike a business, a school cannot choose to do something radically different. It has no equivalent of the choice of, for example, Virgin, in moving from the production and sale of music to running a travel operation in aeroplanes and trains. Educational institutions can make small choices, to emphasise this aspect of the curriculum or that, to add additional value through sporting or leisure activity, but these choices are marginal. It is questionable whether they can be genuinely seen as strategic. Their choices are constrained by legislation, by state funding, by the expectations of the community, by custom and practice. Their choice of customer is limited. Schools may be obliged legally and morally to provide for the local community, rather than trawling further afield. Even in non-compulsory vocational and higher education, the emphasis on inclusion and/or participation may compel institutions to enrol a defined range of students. Finally, schools particularly may not be equipped to undertake the environmental scanning exhorted in the literature. Even post-compulsory education, which might be assumed to have more resource and expertise in this area, may be constrained. A survey of technical colleges in South Africa discovered a desire to research the needs of employers and students better but no resource to do so (Lumby, 2000).

There exists, then, a dominant normative view of strategic planning, but its relevance to education and its existence in practice remain subject to doubt. The existing research highlights the wide range of purposes and approaches to planning, which only in part conform to the normative model.

The latter can be challenged on a number of grounds. First, in its emphasis on a rational process, beginning with aligning staff, it ignores the profound

influence of micropolitical factors. Johnson (1993) and Ansoff and McDonnell (1990) posit that any plan for change will evoke a range of essentially political reactions from strong support to strong rejection. Strategic management, that is not only planning but achieving what is in the plan, will therefore inevitably involve a micropolitical process if it is to be successful. Second, no educational organisation plans in a static environment. The more turbulent the situation, the more plans laid one, two or more years ago, may lack relevance. Plans may need to change from the moment they are completed. Consequently a number of schools of thought have grown describing the process variously. Quong et al. (1998) list 10 different schools of thought, several of which do not envisage a linear relationship between plans and outcomes. Under one broad umbrella lie 'adaptive' definitions which construe planning and implementation as in some measure interactive with the environment in an ongoing way. Thus Mintzberg and Waters (1985) suggest strategy may be 'emergent' arising from the situation as it evolves rather than as the result of a decision at one point in time. Alternatively, Quinn (1980) uses the term 'logical incrementalism' to describe a process by which change is built not by implementing monumental plans, but by carefully constructing each step on the foundation of that which preceded it.

There is also a range of views on two further important factors, the basis of decision and how far all staff/stakeholders need to be involved. Particularly literature which offers guidance from the state or donor bodies tends to emphasise the rational basis of making choices, by gathering and analysing relevant factual data (FEDA, 1995). Others stress the place of intuition, that true strategic thinking is in short supply and involves the use of a creative process engaging both intuition and emotion as well as rational intellect (Ansoff and McDonnell, 1990; Ohmae, 1982). For some, the involvement of staff is axiomatic for success (FEDA, 1995). For others, the requirement to achieve 'ownership' is unrealistic (Holder, 1996). As Cowham (1992) reports, even within a single senior management team in one institution, the range of views on the most effective approach to strategic planning can span staff who are self-avowedly 'Stalinist' to those who believe it is more appropriate to adopt a collegial stance.

There are then a plethora of models of strategic planning. It may be that the models are strongly contingent and that what works well in an affluent, well-supported primary school in the Home Counties in England may not work at all in an African university torn by student protest and destabilised by deficit caused by student debt.

The nature of strategic planning

In the field of education, management is characterised by 'conceptual pluralism'. No one perspective on strategic planning is likely to aid managers to fully

comprehend the activity in their own institution, let alone the range of practice throughout the world. The analysis in this chapter has shown strategic planning to operate on a number of platforms. First, it is clearly a bureaucratic process. Particularly when required by regional or national administration, or when required by those who may donate funds, the primary purpose of the activity will be to satisfy external bodies. It is evident that in many cases, without this compulsion, educational institutions would not engage with strategic planning at all. For example, those African universities most forward with strategic planning are those most heavily reliant on donor aid (Farrant and Afonso, 1997). The planning undertaken may invest much more effort in the operational than the strategic aspect, moving from the general and rather weakly formulated strategic corporate vision/mission and goals to a much more incisive and clear business plan or development plan. Such plans do work. As Mintzberg and Waters (1985: 320) point out 'deliberate strategies are more prevalent than emergent ones'. They warn about moving to a view which sees strategies as generally emergent in a turbulent world. Saying what you are going to do and then doing it is more common than imagined. A principal in a college in England found his college could be surprisingly accurate in estimating what they planned to do, based on their corporate goals (Lumby, 2001).

Strategic planning also operates on a political platform. The mission statements of schools in Singapore are a clear example of an aspect of planning which has little impact on activity in the school. Rather, the mission is used to provide an acceptable rhetoric, reassuring to administration and parents alike, that educational values are at the core. In parts of the world, such as Japan, where it is asserted that 'schools have become fact-grinding and knowledge-based institutions even at elementary level' (Sugimine, 1998: 121), a mission which paints a different picture of an orientation to develop the whole child may serve a characteristic political aim, the disguise or camouflage of reality. Less bleak may be the view of Warnet (1994) that the process of strategic planning provides a vehicle for the negotiation and accommodation of the different priorities and expectations of society, as embodied within the different stakeholder groups. Strategic planning in this sense is political in a positive way, much more than a bureaucratic process of providing an acceptable plan. It is a means of accommodating conflict and contradiction in the community's and wider society's aspirations for learners.

Finally, strategic planning functions on a cultural platform. Culture shifts constantly but the underlying shared assumptions are to some degree controlled by being coalesced within the plan. The latter becomes the means of supporting or blocking actions and requests for resources. If it is not in the plan, then it can be blocked. To some degree, therefore, the assumptions enshrined in the plan may have a greater impact or longevity than they would otherwise. The cultural process also relates to maintaining the emotional well being of the organisation. If the future may be unknowable and plans quickly

inadequate, the mere fact of having thought about the future and tried to bring some control to its course may reassure, resulting in what Quong et al. (1998: 36) call 'a useful palliative'.

Linking vision and strategic planning

The debate on whether vision-building is an essential first step in strategic planning or is more properly seen as an ongoing simultaneous process is unnecessary. Values are dynamic and, therefore, will never reach a point of stasis. Consequently, even if there were an agreed set of values preceding planning, they would not remain stable. They will continue to be renegotiated and reconfirmed as part of the warp and weft of the organisation's shifting culture. A more pertinent point is how far it is possible to use the value base, as embodied in the vision, to shape concrete targets and goals. Sometimes the values may be such that it is relatively easy to make the link. For example, if a school is driven by a value of passing on a tradition of skills and culture to be an international centre of excellence in one field, for example the Royal Ballet School, the implications for the selection and education of pupils may be more easy to discern. However, values may often be more general and more difficult to link to particular paths of action. If an underpinning value is to respect all individuals, this provides only the most general of guidance and offers no basis for prioritising amongst what may be a host of possibilities. Does it imply developing individual tutorial systems, or focusing on equal opportunities initiatives, or focusing on interpersonal relations with anti-bullying policies etc.? Resources are unlikely to allow the institution to do all it wishes. How does the agreed value in this case guide planning? The answer may be that it does not to any great extent, being too vague, but may act as a weak filtering force. For example, a suggested target to increase the proportion of able students entering the institution would seem to be in contradiction to the value. In this sense the common sort of values agreed may exert a weak negative force rather than a strong positive one.

Attempts to link vision and strategy happen both at the inception of a plan, in trying to relate the targets and goals to the vision, and on an ongoing basis by asking staff to justify requests for resources or other operational activity by relating them to the strategic plan. In both cases, the result is often rather tenuous. In a study of the strategic plans of further education colleges in England, it was clear that plans attempted to follow the expected form of a statement of vision/mission followed by a sequential statement of plans, each level supplying more exact details than the last and relating to what has been stated previously (Lumby, 1999). The plans did not achieve this. It was difficult to discern how some of the more detailed actions specified in the final stages of the plan related to the vision or even to the corporate goals which were the next level down. The plan which is a paper representation of intended actions

prefigured the same process in reality, with staff in departments unaware of and unaffected by the vision or corporate goals. Similarly, the attempt to link actions to vision and goals was problematic. In one study, staff had been asked to link their development needs to the strategic plan but found it difficult to do so consistently (Lumby, 1997a; 1997b). For example, managers felt the need to become more efficient at managing but they could not link this explicitly to the vision, which related to targeting particular markets and to aspects of teaching and learning.

In order to attract general agreement and support, the vision and its underpinning values need to be general. The more specific they become, the more they are likely to be in contradiction to the range of views of staff. Values are in any case, by definition 'abstract, vague and subjective' (Kenny, 1994). The potential for vision to provide guidance on choices and priorities is therefore limited. It may be that vision in action in many institutions may relate far more strongly to achieving a general sense of corporateness, a belief, justified or otherwise, in a degree of common aim. Vision building and maintaining provides a background wash which colours but does not shape strategic plans.

The impact on teaching and learning

Weick (1976) argues that educational organisations are loosely coupled. The degree of autonomy given to staff, the complexity of both the technology of teaching and learning and of the environment renders problematic any simple translation of intention or instruction into the planned outcome. This being the case, it is particularly hard to relate specific management activity to improvements in teaching and learning. Strategic planning is no exception. When the multiple purposes of the process, bearing in mind the different perspectives outlined in this chapter, are also taken into account, concluding whether strategic planning brings benefits for learners and educators is complex. There is evidence that the mere fact of undertaking the process makes staff *feel* more effective. In a survey of college principals in England, all the principals agreed that the process of strategic planning had resulted in:

- a greater sense of purpose
- an increased feeling of independence
- a benchmark against which decisions could be measured
- better systems and efficiency
- better communication as there was something important to communicate (Lumby, 1999: 81).

There are other examples where the process of planning had led staff in schools to feel similarly purposeful and committed (Staessens and Vandenberghe, 1994; Warnet, 1994). Equally, there are examples where

strategic planning is undertaken which has little or no impact (Quong et al., 1998; Thomas, 1998). The impact of planning is obviously contingent on a wide range of factors. First, what should be the primary source of support, the state, is often the most acutely felt barrier. The frequent changes in government policy are clearly seriously impeding planning in the UK and other parts of the world (Lumby, 2000; 2001; Wallace, 1992). Staff capacity and resource vary, particularly the resource of time. Lieberman and Miller detail the many frustrations of principals in American schools:

- They ought to show concern for individual problems and individual growth; but because they were in charge of the whole school, they had to sacrifice personal vision for a more pragmatic view.
- They ought to do long-range thinking but frequently they had to make short-range, even instantaneous, decisions to keep small brush fires from becoming conflagrations.
- They ought to be colleagues; but often they were bosses.
- They ought to be innovators; but they were maintaining the status quo.
- They ought to be champions of ideas: in reality they were masters of the concrete, paying attention to detail before worrying about abstractions (Lieberman and Miller, 1999: 40).

Many thousands of miles away in South Africa the same conditions prevail. As Van der Westhuizen and Legotlo (1996: 74) state, 'Most of the black schools have their mission statements buried beneath a pile of problems'. The question is therefore not only has strategic planning provided benefits for learners and staff but also what is its potential? If governments could be persuaded to cease the rain of changing policies, for example, would the potential benefit increase? At the moment the process appears to be bringing a range of possible benefits contingent on the environment. These include:

- securing staff engagement with the purpose of the institution
- reassuring staff in an uncertain world
- acting as a symbol of managerial competence
- directing choices
- delineating actions
- providing a vehicle to negotiate and accommodate conflict or contradictions in the wishes and expectations of different groups
- providing political camouflage.

Jennings and Wattam (1998) provide a table (Table 6.2) of the differences between current practice/assumptions in strategic planning and a proposed future approach.

Rather than seeing this dichotomy as the past and the future, the evidence reviewed suggests that the two columns in Table 6.2 may represent parallel

Table 6.2 *Chaos: a new framework for strategic management*

Today's frame of reference	A new frame of reference
Long-term future is predictable to some extent.	Long-term future is unknowable.
Visions and plans are central to strategic management.	Dynamic agendas of strategic issues are central to effective strategic management.
Vision: a single shared organisation-wide intention, a picture of a future state.	Challenge: multiple aspirations, stretching and ambiguous. Arising out of current ill-structured and conflicting issues with long-term consequences.
Strongly shared cultures.	Contradictory countercultures.
Cohesive teams of managers operating in a state of consensus	Learning groups of managers, surfacing conflict, engaging in dialogue, publicly testing assertions.
Decision-making as a purely logical, analytical process.	Decision-making as exploratory, experimental process based on intuition and reasoning by analogy.
Long-term control and development as the monitoring of progress against planned milestones.	Control and development in open-ended situations as a political process.
Constraints provided by rules, systems and rational argument.	Constraints provided by need to build and sustain support. Control as self-policing and learning.
Strategy as the realisation of prior intent.	Strategy as spontaneously emerging from the chaos of challenge and contradiction, through a process of real-time learning and politics.
Top management drives and controls strategic direction.	Top management creates favourable conditions for complex learning and politics.
General mental models and prescriptions for many specific situations.	New mental models required for each new strategic situation.
Adaptive equilibrium with the environment.	Non-equilibrium, creative interaction with the environment.

Source: Jennings and Wattam (1998: 323)

processes currently in operation and likely to continue as such. As far back as 1987, Garrat framed the process of successful change as dealing with questions of who knows, who cares and who can. The process of strategic planning will continue to deal with gathering relevant information, but also with the need to establish 'care' to achieve commitment. It will also add details of who can, who is responsible, what are their resources and timescales and

targets. As such the process will remain both rational and political, preplanned and emergent. A metaphor which perhaps captures strategic planning in the twenty-first century is the flight of a rocket into space. It is guided by the best knowledge and technology that can be provided and its course is carefully charted. At the same time it is a leap of faith into what is essentially unknown. The goal may be to increase our knowledge of the universe, but equally to increase the prestige of the country which launched it. It may get to the target planet, star or universe, or not. Just as humans cannot envisage ceasing to attempt such flight, educational managers, whatever the problems and weakness in the process of strategic planning, cannot abandon the attempt. No change is no option. Nor is there any option but to attempt to impose order on change, through agreeing a vision of the future and strategically planning to reach the desired destination.

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